



Ag⁺ quantum dots obtained via in situ photodeposition method as photocatalytic CO₂ reduction cocatalyst: Borrowing redox conversion between Ag⁺ and Ag⁰

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ABSTRACT

Ag⁺-loaded TiO₂ (Ag⁺/TiO₂) nanocomposites were prepared by an in situ photodeposition method. There is no sacrificial agent during the loading procedure, and the photo-reduction process is always accompanied by a photo-oxidation process, resulting in the simultaneous presence of Ag⁰ and Ag⁺. Surprisingly, the obtained Ag⁺ clusters can be considered as quantum dots with an average size of 2.75 nm, and this quantum size for noble metal is very difficult to get by conventional photodeposition method. Furthermore, we can adjust the ratio of Ag⁰ and Ag⁺ to achieve dynamic balance by changing the processing temperature (60 °C - yellow to 180 °C - violet black). The results indicate that the ratio of Ag⁰ and Ag⁺ is a key factor for the photocatalytic efficiency.

1. Introduction

Due to the large global consumption of fossil fuels and the enhancement of atmospheric carbon dioxide, the feasible photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ has attracted increasing attention [1–3], owing to that the artificial photosynthesis can transform the CO₂ into usable fuels to overcome the greenhouse effect as much as possible [4–7]. Up to now, various semiconductor photocatalysts, such as CdS [8], TiO₂ [9], Bi₂WO₆ [10], SrTiO₃ [11], and MOF compounds [12,13] et al., have been reported in application of CO₂ reduction. Among them, TiO₂ is considered to be a suitable photocatalyst for CO₂ photoreduction because of its high chemical stability, nontoxic, thermally stable and environmentally friendly, which is important for CO₂ photoconversion in an aqueous environment [14–18]. There are many methods have been reported so far to improve the CO₂ photoconversion activity based on TiO₂, such as doping of elements [19,20], recombination of semiconductors [21,22], loading of cocatalysts [23–27], regulation of crystal-facet [28,29], and so on. However, the efficiency is still low, which could not meet practical application requirements.

Generally, the cocatalysts could significantly improve the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction efficiency via providing more active sites and suppressing the recombination of photogenerated carriers. The typical cocatalysts mainly include Pt [30], Ag [31], Pd [32], et al. Among

them, Ag has attracted widespread attentions because the cost of which is much lower. Moreover, Ag as a cocatalyst has many fascinating properties, which is not inferior to other noble metals on promoting the activity of TiO₂. For example, Ag/(anatase/brookite) TiO₂ microspheres shows remarkable enhanced CO₂ reduction efficiency, which demonstrated that Ag serves as a sink to accumulate photogenerated electrons by the Schottky barrier at the Ag–TiO₂ interface [33]. Peng et al. proved that the different exposed crystal facets of brookite nanocubes for Ag loading and the size of Ag nanoparticles can significantly affect the activity and selectivity of CO₂ photoreduction to CO/CH₄ [34]. As far as we know, the studies of Ag as the cocatalyst on photocatalytic CO₂ reduction are mainly focused on Ag nanoparticles (NPs). However, the Ag clusters with smaller size is rarely reported. Therefore, it will be a very meaningful work to assemble Ag clusters as a cocatalyst, in which to explore the effect of Ag clusters toward CO₂ photoconversion activity. At the same time, a large number of reports indicate that when Ag@TiO₂ composites are synthesized by the in situ photodeposition method, almost all of the Ag NPs are loaded on the low-active {101} reduction facet not on the high-active {001} oxidation facet [35,36]. Therefore, it is worth attempting to load Ag on the high-active oxidation plane.

Herein, Ag clusters was successfully immobilized on the {001} oxidation plane of TiO₂ nanosheets via an in situ photodeposition

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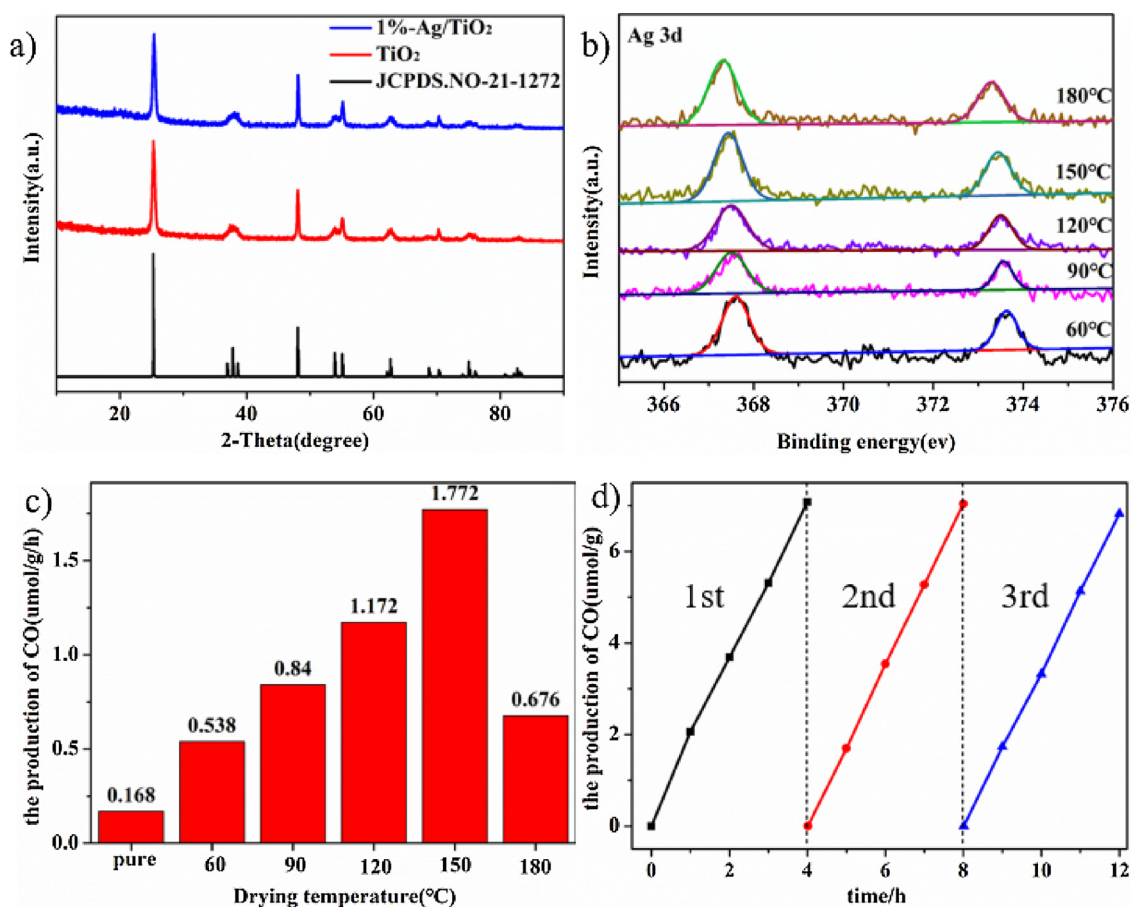


Fig. 1. (a) XRD patterns of all samples (b) High-resolution XPS spectra of the Ag⁺/TiO₂ samples processed with different temperature (c) CO yield of the Ag⁺/TiO₂ samples processed with different temperature under UV-vis light irradiation. (d) Repeated photocatalytic CO₂ reduction activity in H₂O with the Ag⁺/TiO₂ sample processed at 150 °C as photocatalyst.

method without any sacrificial agent. Certainly, oxidation may occur in Ag clusters on the high-active oxidation facet, hence Ag⁺ clusters was assembled to transfer holes. As expected, Ag⁺ clusters loaded on TiO₂ exhibits much better CO₂ photoconversion performance compared to that of pure TiO₂, which is attributed to the Ag⁺ clusters have significant acceleration to TiO₂ on separating the photogenerated electron-hole pairs.

2. Experimental section

2.1. Materials

Ti(OBu)₄, hydrofluoric acid solution (40%), and AgNO₃ were provided from the Sinopharm Chemical Reagent Corporation (Shanghai, China). All materials, which were analytical grade, were used without further purification in this study.

2.1.1. Synthesis of TiO₂ nanosheets

TiO₂ nanosheets with highly reactive {001} facets were synthesized as follows: Ti(OBu)₄ (15 mL) was mixed with hydrofluoric acid solution (3 mL, 40%) under vigorous stirring. The resulting solution was stirred for 30 min, transferred into a dried Teflon autoclave, which was kept at 200°C for 24 h. After being cooled to room temperature and washed by water and ethanol, the white precipitate was dried at 60 °C overnight.

2.2. Preparation of the Ag⁺/TiO₂ nanocomposite

AgNO₃ aqueous solution (0.1 mL, 0.185 M) was injected into the TiO₂ suspension aqueous solution (0.4 g, 100 mL). After stirring for

10 min, take the solution under the photoreactor and irradiated for 30 min to make Ag⁺ cluster grow on the TiO₂ surface. Fluoride ions strongly adsorb silver ions, and there is no sacrificial agent during the loading process, then the reduction process is accompanied by an oxidation process, as shown in Fig.S1. After being filtered and washed by water and ethanol, the precipitate was dried at different temperatures (60°C, 90°C, 120°C, 150°C, 180°C) for 5 h, as shown in Fig.S2. The Ag/TiO₂ samples after Fluoride removal or with the sacrificial agent were also prepared and characterized by us. As shown in Fig.S3, almost all of the Ag NPs are loaded on the low-active {101} reduction facet and the size of the Ag NPs is bigger.

2.3. Characterization

X-ray powder diffraction (XRD) pattern was measured on a Bruker AXS D8 diffractometer with Cu K α radiation ($\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$). UV-vis diffuse reflectance spectroscopy (DRS) absorption spectra (BaSO₄ was used as a reference) were investigated by Shimadzu UV 2550 spectrophotometer. The morphologies of the samples were measured by scanning electron microscopy (SEM, Hitachi S-4800) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM, JEOL JEM-2100 F). X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) spectra were recorded on Thermo Fisher Scientific Escalab 250 spectrometer equipped with Al K α X-rays, and the binding energies were calibrated by the C 1s peak (284.6 eV). The photoluminescence (PL) was analyzed on a Hitachi F-4500 fluorescence spectrophotometer with the excitation wavelength of 320 nm. The time resolved fluorescence spectra were recorded at 460 nm using a 320 nm excitation by Edinburgh FLS920 PL, decay curves were fitted by using a biexponential decay function to obtain deconvolution of the instrument

response function.

2.4. Photocatalytic CO₂ reduction evaluation

The process of photocatalytic reduction of CO₂ is follows: 0.1 g Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ sample was mixed into 100 mL water with vigorous stirring, and high purity CO₂ gas was continuously bubbled through the solution for 1 h before the lamp turn on. A 300 W Xe arc lamp (PLS-SXE300, Beijing Trustech Co., Ltd.) was used as the light source. The temperature of reactor of photocatalytic CO₂ reduction was controlled at 15 °C, to increase the solubility of CO₂ via using cooling water circulation. At the given time interval, the gas was withdrawn and the product was monitored by GC-7920 gas chromatograph (FID detector, YQ1229 column).

3. Results and discussion

In order to systematically investigate the results, the crystalline structures of the as-prepared samples were firstly characterized via powder X-ray diffraction (XRD). As shown in Fig. 1a, the diffraction peaks for all samples can be perfectly identified as the anatase TiO₂ structure (JCPDS no. 21-1272), which means the crystal structure of TiO₂ is not changing after loading of Ag. Besides, there are no diffraction peaks of Ag⁰ or Ag⁺ in the 1%-Ag/TiO₂ samples, which indicate that the detection sensitivity is insufficient to form the peak with too little content.

To identify the valence states of the Ag ions and the chemical composition of the deposited samples, all the products processed with different temperature were analyzed by XPS. The high resolution XPS spectra of the Ag 3d binding energy regions are shown in Fig. 2b. We can see two distinct peaks occur at 367.5–368.2 eV and 373.5–374.2 eV. As we know, the peaks located at 367.5 and 373.5 eV can be attributed to the characteristic orbital splitting of the Ag 3d^{5/2} and Ag 3d^{3/2} which are features of the Ag⁺. And two peaks located at 368.2 and 374.2 eV can be ascribed to the characteristic orbital splitting of the Ag 3d^{5/2} and Ag 3d^{3/2}, which are features of the Ag⁰ [37–39]. Thus the silver ions in our sample exist in a mixed state. Meanwhile, as increasing the processing temperature, the characteristic peaks of the 3d orbit of silver shift to the lower energy state in a regular manner, which means that as the processing temperature increases, the positive valence of silver increases. Therefore, the ratio of Ag⁰ and Ag⁺ can be controlled by varying the processing temperature.

To study the optical properties of the samples, the UV–vis absorption spectra were measured. As shown in Fig.S4, all the samples exhibit strong absorption in the range below 390 nm. It is attributed to the characteristic absorption of TiO₂ from band–band electron transition. Comparing with pure TiO₂, all the samples processed with different temperatures exhibit broad absorption in the visible region due to the SPR effect of Ag dots and the surface plasmon absorption gives the valid

evidence that Ag indeed exist in the samples [40].

The ratio of Ag⁰ and Ag⁺ was optimized by detecting the yield of CO (Fig. 1c), a series of as-prepared samples were prepared and noted as 60 °C, 90 °C, 120 °C, 150 °C and 180 °C based on different processing temperatures. It is observed that pristine TiO₂ has a poor reaction rate constant of 0.168 μmol/g/h. After loading of Ag_n⁺, the yield of CO shows different extent of improvement. Particularly, the sample processed at 150 °C exhibits the highest activity of CO₂ photoconversion and reaction rate is even reaching up to 1.772 μmol/g/h, which is about 10 times higher than that of pure TiO₂. It can be seen the different ratio of Ag⁰ and Ag⁺ in the Ag_n⁺ cluster has a great influence on reactivity of CO₂ reduction.

In order to confirm the stability of the obtained Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ samples, the photocatalytic CO₂ reduction reaction of the samples processed at 150 °C was circularly carried out for three times. After each cycle, the sample was collected, washed, dried and then continued to perform photocatalytic CO₂ conversion in water solution. The result of the cycle experiment was shown in Fig. 1d, implying that the samples processed at 150 °C have carried out a relatively excellent recyclability under ultraviolet visible (UV–vis) light irradiation. And the sample after cycle experiment was characterized by TEM and XPS (Fig.S5). Compared with the initial Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ TEM patterns and XPS spectra, there is no change after three cycles, indicating that Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ samples is very stable and really have industrial application prospects.

The effective generation and instant separation of photo-excited charge carriers are crucial for the photocatalytic reactions [41]. The room-temperature PL and TRPL (the time resolved fluorescence) spectra were measured to characterize the recombination rate and lifetime of photo-generated electrons and holes [42,43]. As shown in Fig. 2a, the positions of the emission peaks of Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ samples were similar compared with that of TiO₂, but all intensity decreased and the sample processed at 150 °C exhibited the lowest intensity. This result suggests that the samples processed at 150 °C has the lowest recombination rate of photo-generated charge carriers compared with pure TiO₂ and other Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ composites [44–46]. Moreover, the TRPL decay spectra of the pure TiO₂ and the Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ sample processed at 150 °C is shown in Fig. 2b, the average lifetime is calculated using the following relation: $\tau_{av} = a_1\tau_1 + a_2\tau_2 + a_3\tau_3$, (τ_1, τ_2 and τ_3 are the lifetime, a_1, a_2 and a_3 are normalized pre-exponential factors) [47]. The average life times of pure TiO₂ and the Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ sample processed at 150 °C are evaluated to be 2.07 and 4.33 ns, respectively. The Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ sample processed at 150 °C has the slower decay rate. A longer lifetime is equivalent to decreasing the recombination rate of photogenerated charge carrier, leading to a more efficient electronhole separation [48], which is very conducive to photocatalytic activity. In short, the slower recombination rate in the Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ composites implies the introductions of Ag_n⁺ nanoparticles can significantly suppress the recombination of photogenerated charge carriers than those in the pristine TiO₂. This result is consistent with that Ag_n⁺/TiO₂

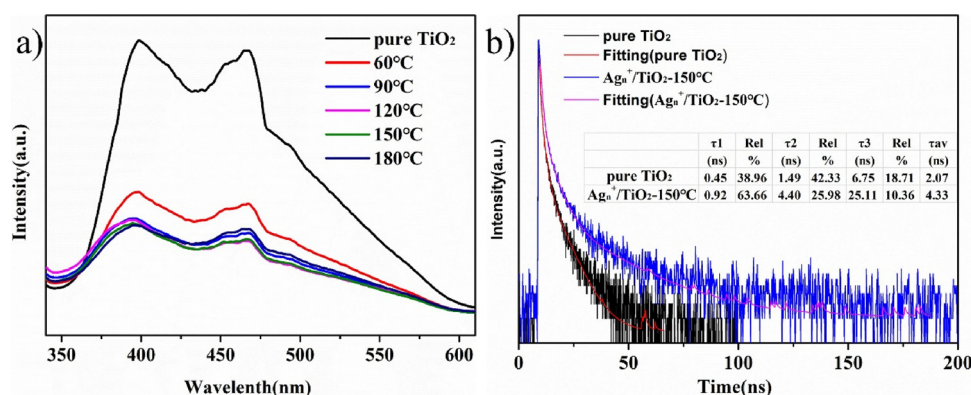


Fig. 2. (a) PL spectra of all samples, (b) TRPL decay spectra of the pure TiO₂ and the Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ sample processed at 150 °C.

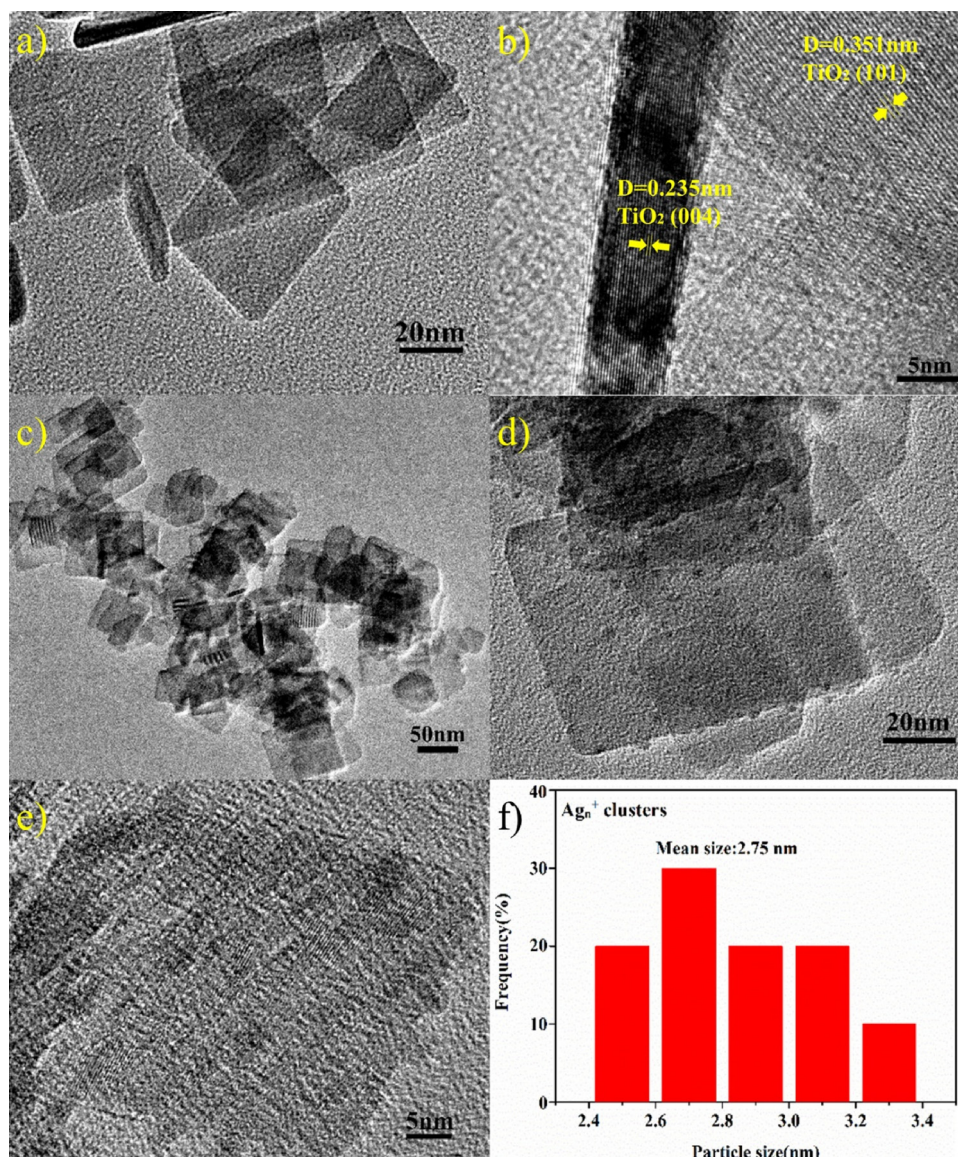


Fig. 3. TEM images of TiO₂ (a, b) and the Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ sample processed at 150 °C (c, d, e, f).

composites exhibit much higher photocatalytic CO₂ reduction performance.

The morphologies of pure TiO₂ and Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ samples were investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM). As shown in Fig.S6 and Fig.S7, the morphologies before and after the deposition of Ag_n⁺ are almost identical. And then, Fig.S8 exhibits the energy dispersive X-ray spectrum (EDS) information of the Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ sample, further confirming the presence of Ag elements. The corresponding EDS mappings of elemental O, Ti and Ag of 150 °C-Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ are shown in Fig.S9. This result proves that Ag elements are uniformly loaded on the surface of TiO₂. To further analyze the surface morphologies, the pristine TiO₂ and 150 °C-Ag_n⁺/TiO₂ were chosen to investigate the surface state using transmission electron microscope (TEM). It is observed that the average sizes of TiO₂ nanosheets are about 30 nm (width), 50 nm (length) and 4 nm (thickness), respectively (Fig. 3a). The insert image of Fig. 3b showed the measured lattice spacing is ca. 0.351 nm on the large plane, which is matched well with the {101} planes of pristine anatase TiO₂, the measured lattice spacing is ca. 0.235 nm on the side plane, which is matched well with the {004} planes of pristine anatase TiO₂. It is worth mentioning that high exposed face of pristine TiO₂ we synthesized was {001} crystal face. After

the deposition of Ag_n⁺, the sizes of TiO₂ nanosheets have no obvious change (Fig. 3c-f) and the Ag_n⁺ nanoparticles uniformly disperse on the TiO₂ {001} crystal face, in which their average particle size is quantum dots level, ca. 2.75 nm. Such a small size and such a uniform distribution are also important reasons for high activity of Ag_n⁺/TiO₂.

We know that the photocatalytic properties largely depend on the surface atom arrangement and synergy of different crystal planes [49,50]. Due to the atom arrangement characteristics on crystal planes, different crystal facets have different surface energy levels of the conduction band and valence band [51,52]. For anatase TiO₂, theoretical calculations and extensive experimental studies have shown that the oxidation sites are on the {001} plane and the reduction sites are on the {101} plane [53,54]. The results of TEM images, EDS mappings and High-resolution XPS spectra fully prove that we have successfully loaded Ag_n⁺ nanoparticles on the highly exposed 85% and highly active oxide surface {001} plane. Based on the experimental results, Fig. 4 presents a possible mechanism for photocatalytic CO₂ reactions. Under UV-vis light irradiation, TiO₂ is excited to generate photo-generated electrons (e⁻) and holes (h⁺). On the reduction plane, single silver captures electrons and acts as a reactive site. On the highly active oxide plane, Ag⁰ in the Ag_n⁺ cluster rapidly captures photogenerated holes to

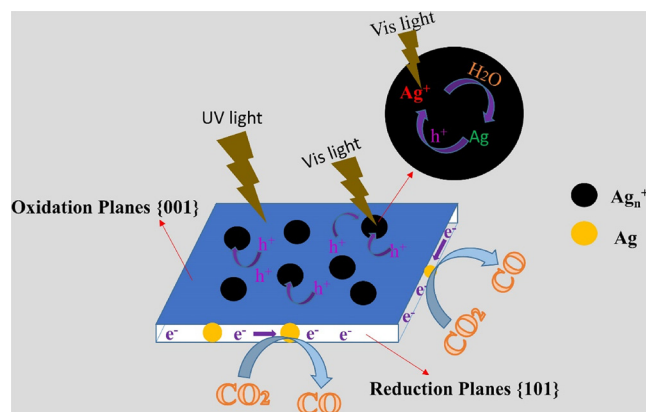


Fig. 4. The Schematic illustration of photocatalytic CO_2 reduction into CO of $\text{Ag}_n^+/\text{TiO}_2$ product.

transform into Ag^+ . The CB position of Ag^+ is approximately 0.19 eV and is excited by visible light to generate Ag^0 [55,56]. Compared with the initial $\text{Ag}_n^+/\text{TiO}_2$ TEM patterns and XPS spectra, there is no change of the $\text{Ag}_n^+/\text{TiO}_2$ sample after three cycles, indicating that $\text{Ag}_n^+/\text{TiO}_2$ sample is very stable. Briefly, under the action of visible light, Ag_n^+ cluster forms a cycle of Ag^0 and Ag^+ in the aqueous phase by trapping the photogenerated holes of TiO_2 . Throughout the process, silver acts as a cocatalyst and hole-electron trap to induce efficient separation of photogenerated electrons and holes, thereby enhancing photocatalytic carbon dioxide reduction activity.

4. In summary

Ag_n^+ clusters as a hole-cocatalyst was successfully immobilized on the surface of TiO_2 nanosheets by an in situ photodeposition method without any sacrificial agent. As expected, $\text{Ag}_n^+/\text{TiO}_2$ composite photocatalyst exhibits much better CO_2 photoconversion performance compared to that of pure TiO_2 . The reason was attributed to the introduction of Ag_n^+ clusters, which can significantly improve the separation efficiency of the photogenerated electron-hole pairs. In the Ag_n^+ clusters, Ag^0 can be oxidized by holes to transform into Ag^+ , subsequently, the Ag^+ could reconvert into Ag^0 clusters under the visible light irradiation. Finally, the ratio of Ag^0 and Ag^+ can be adjusted by changing the processing temperature (60 °C–180 °C), and a suitable ratio of Ag^0 and Ag^+ is the key to the catalytic efficiency.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary material related to this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2018.10.053>.

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